

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Changes in HIV incidence during the COVID-19 pandemic (2020–22) compared with the pre-pandemic period (2015–19) in Peru: An observational study

Max Carlos Ramírez-Soto^{1*} and Hugo Arroyo-Hernández²

1 Facultad de Ciencias de la Salud, Universidad Tecnológica del Peru, Lima, Peru, **2** Universidad de Huánuco, Huánuco, Peru

* maxcrs22@gmail.com



OPEN ACCESS

Citation: Ramírez-Soto MC, Arroyo-Hernández H (2025) Changes in HIV incidence during the COVID-19 pandemic (2020–22) compared with the pre-pandemic period (2015–19) in Peru: An observational study. PLoS One 20(6): e0324784. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0324784>

Editor: Oriana Rivera-Lozada de Bonilla, Norbert Wiener University, PERU

Received: February 13, 2025

Accepted: April 30, 2025

Published: June 2, 2025

Peer Review History: PLOS recognizes the benefits of transparency in the peer review process; therefore, we enable the publication of all of the content of peer review and author responses alongside final, published articles. The editorial history of this article is available here: <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0324784>

Copyright: © 2025 Ramírez-Soto, Arroyo-Hernández. This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the [Creative Commons Attribution License](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/), which permits

Abstract

Introduction

During the COVID-19 pandemic, non-pharmaceutical interventions affected the screening of sexually transmitted infections. We investigated the incidence of HIV infection during the COVID-19 pandemic compared with incidence in the pre-pandemic period.

Methods

In this observational study, we analyzed HIV surveillance data for all age-groups from 25 geographically diverse regions in Peru from Jan 1, 2015 to Dec 31, 2022. HIV incidence during the COVID-19 pandemic (2020, 2021, and 2022) was compared with pre-pandemic rates (2015–19).

Results

Overall, there were 65,166 new cases of HIV infection from January 1, 2015 to December 31, 2022. HIV incidence risk ratio (IRR) was 26% lower in 2020 (IRR=0.74; 95% CI, 0.71–0.76), 5% higher in 2021 (IRR=1.05; 95% CI, 1.02–1.08) and 16% higher in 2022 (IRR=1.16; CI, 1.13–1.20), compared with the pre-pandemic period. Furthermore, compared with the pre-pandemic period, the annual incidence of HIV among men was 29% lower in 2020 (IRR=0.71; 95% CI, 0.68–0.73), 4% higher in 2021 (IRR=1.04, 95% CI, 1.01–1.08) and 10% higher in 2022 (IRR=1.10; 95% CI, 1.06–1.14). In the age-stratified analysis, the annual HIV incidence in 2020 was 21 and 33% lower for those aged 18–29 (IRR=0.79; 95% CI, 0.75–0.83) and 30–59 (IRR=0.67; 95% CI, 0.64–0.70), respectively, compared with the pre-pandemic period. Finally, annual HIV incidence has decreased in 11 out of 25 regions in 2020, compared with the pre-pandemic period.

unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

Data availability statement: The HIV case data used in our analyses are publicly available on the website of Peru's Centro Nacional de Epidemiología, Prevención y Control de Enfermedades (<https://www.dge.gob.pe/vih/#grafico02>). Third-party Peruvian population figures for this study are publicly available from the MINSA website (<https://www.minsa.gob.pe/reunis/?op=1&niv=5&tbl=1>). The authors confirm that the data supporting the findings of this study are available from these third-party sources and within the paper.

Funding: This study was financially supported by Universidad Tecnológica del Peru in the form of an award for article processing charges. No additional external funding was received for this study.

Competing interests: The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

Conclusions

Our study showed that during the COVID-19 pandemic in 2020, the incidence of HIV infection in the population of Peru decreased. However, this incidence began to return to pre-pandemic rates in 2021, coinciding with the easing or elimination of non-pharmaceutical interventions. By 2022, the incidence of HIV infection was higher than in the pre-pandemic period, especially in regions of the Peruvian Amazon.

1. Introduction

During the COVID-19 pandemic, non-pharmaceutical interventions such as social distancing, travel ban (local or international), movement limitation, restriction of assembly, quarantine for travelers, school closure, workplace closure, and contact tracing were implemented to reduce and control transmission of SARS-CoV-2 [1,2]. As a result, several changes to the health system have had a significant impact on healthcare. Many outpatient services were limited or suspended to prevent the spread of the virus and to conserve resources for COVID-19 care [3–5]. As a result, routine check-ups, elective procedures and some specialist services were postponed or canceled. Many healthcare providers turned to telemedicine to continue providing care while minimizing face-to-face contact. This allowed consultations, follow-ups and even some diagnostics to be carried out remotely [6]. However, it also highlighted inequalities in access to technology and reliable internet. Laboratories had to prioritize on COVID-19 testing, resulting in reduced availability of other diagnostic tests. Many tests and services that were not related to COVID-19 were deprioritized, which had an impact on the monitoring and management of chronic diseases and other health issues [7]. Clinics and hospitals restructured their physical spaces to improve their infection control measures. This included creating separate areas for COVID-19 patients, reconfiguring waiting rooms to promote social distancing, and implementing stricter hygiene protocols. Fear of COVID-19 infection also led many patients to delay or avoid medical care altogether [6,8].

The disruption to health services caused by the COVID-19 pandemic has had a notable and worrying impact on other areas of public health, particularly in the area of HIV testing and diagnosis [7,9,10]. In several countries, there has been a significant decline in HIV testing as a result of the diversion of health care resources to the COVID-19 response [11,12]. In Belgium, there was a 50% decrease in HIV tests [13]. In Australia, testing decreased by 31% in a large STI clinic [14]. In China, a 59% reduction in testing was observed across four regions [15]. In Kenya, challenges included a reduction in clinic-based testing and limited distribution of self-testing kits [16]. A study in Europe reported a drop of more than 50% in HIV testing from March to May 2020, with a slight recovery in the following months [17]. In Japan, a similar decline in HIV testing has been observed [18].

To our knowledge, only two studies have assessed changes in HIV diagnoses in Peru [19,20]. A study found that there was a decrease (33%) in the average number of HIV diagnoses in 2020 (n=5170), compared to the average number of cases

between 2017 and 2019 ($n = 7746$). This decrease in the average number of HIV diagnoses was observed in 21 out of 25 regions [19]. Although HIV occurs mainly in men aged 30 and over, the study did not analyze changes in HIV diagnosis by sex and age. It also did not analyze whether changes in HIV diagnoses were sustained in 2021 and 2022 (pandemic period) [19]. Another study found a mean 8.33% (95% CI: -10.73% to -5.93%) decrease in HIV testing proportion after the COVID-19 lockdown, compared with the pre-pandemic period. Additionally, HIV testing rates decreased in 23 of 25 regions [20].

Delays in HIV testing availability have important implications for the timely initiation of treatment and linkage to care. In addition, undiagnosed and untreated HIV increases the risk of transmission, potentially exacerbating the epidemic. Therefore, knowing the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the detection of new HIV cases will help guide public health resources to reactivate HIV prevention and testing efforts. In addition, given the multiple “waves” of COVID-19 in Peru, a longer-term assessment of whether subsequent changes in restrictions have had an impact on HIV testing and whether or not testing rates are recovering is warranted.

To better understand how COVID-19-related restrictive measures affected HIV care systems in Peru—and to be better prepared for similar situations in the future—we evaluated changes in the number of reported HIV cases and incidence rates during the COVID-19 pandemic years (2020, 2021 and 2022) compared with the pre-pandemic period (2015–19).

2. Methods

Study design and data sources

We performed an observational study following the Strengthening the Reporting of Observational Studies in Epidemiology reporting guidelines (STROBE, S1 Table) [21]. In this observational study, we included HIV surveillance data from 1 January 2015 to 31 December 2022 from all 25 regions of Peru that are administrative departments.

Data on the epidemiological surveillance of HIV in Peru were obtained from Centro Nacional de Epidemiología, Prevención y Control de Diseases, Ministerio de Salud del Peru (website: <https://www.dge.gob.pe/vih/#grafico02>) [22]. HIV surveillance data included official on new confirmed cases. Data collected included the number of HIV cases by age group (0–11, 12–17, 18–29, 30–59 and ≥ 60 years), sex (male and female) and geographical region for each year. No other information was available from Centro Nacional de Epidemiología, Prevención y Control de Diseases website.

Outcome

The changes in the reporting of HIV cases (in terms of numbers and percentages) during the COVID-19 pandemic (in 2020, 2021 and 2022) were the primary outcome. The incidence of HIV infection before and during the COVID-19 pandemic was assessed as a secondary outcome.

Statistical analyses

We estimated the changes in HIV case reporting (in numbers and percentages) in the COVID-19 pandemic years (2020, 2021 and 2022), by sex and age, and in each geographical region. The average number of HIV cases in the years 2015–2019 was used to calculate the number of HIV cases in the pre-pandemic period. This average number of HIV cases by sex, age and region in the 5 years before the pandemic was the reference number for the comparison with the pandemic years of COVID-19 (2020, 2021 and 2022). Changes in HIV case notification during the pandemic period were estimated as the difference between HIV cases observed in 2020, 2021 and 2022 and the average number of HIV cases reported between 2015 and 2019. Changes in the proportion of HIV cases reported during the pandemic were calculated as: $((\text{number of HIV cases reported in 2020, 2021 or 2022} - \text{average number of HIV cases in the years 2015–2019}) / \text{average number of HIV cases in the years 2015–2019} \times 100\%)$ by sex, age and region.

The yearly crude incidence rate (IR) for HIV per 100 000 inhabitants was calculated as the number of HIV cases divided by the yearly population estimates (by sex, age group or region) and multiplied by 100 000. Exact 95% CIs were calculated for all IRs assuming a Poisson distribution. Age-, sex- and region-specific incidence rates between 2015 and 2019 were calculated as the total number of HIV cases during the period divided by the sum of the annual population estimates for the 5 years, expressed per 100 000 inhabitants (by sex, age group or region). IR ratios (IRRs) with 95% CIs were calculated for HIV cases per sex, age and region after comparing annual HIV incidence rates during the COVID-19 pandemic period (2020, 2021 and 2022) with the pooled pre-pandemic incidence as the unexposed group. The yearly population figures by region used for the calculation of the IR were obtained from the projections of the National Institute of Statistics and Informatics of Peru. Statistical analyses were performed with the StataSE 17.0 software.

Ethics

This study was approved (Ethics code: 112–2025-CEI/UTP) by the Institutional Review Board of Universidad Tecnológica del Peru (Lima, Peru). Informed consent was not required due to the observational nature of the study. Furthermore, all data sets were aggregated data and therefore completely anonymous.

3. Results

From 1 January 2015 to 31 December 2022, there were 65,166 new cases of HIV infection. In the first year of the COVID-19 pandemic (2020), there was a decrease (26%) in the number of HIV cases ($n=6025$), compared with the yearly average number of cases between 2015 and 2019 ($n=8141$). In the second and third years of the COVID-19 pandemic (2021 and 2022), there was an increased number of HIV cases (6.7% and 19.8%, respectively), compared with the yearly average number of cases between 2015 and 2019 ([Table 1](#)). In addition, in the first year of the COVID-19 pandemic (2020), the number of HIV cases decreased in 21 out of 25 regions compared with the average number of cases between 2015 and 2019. In the second and third years of the pandemic (2021 and 2022), the number of HIV cases decreased in 7 and 5 regions, respectively, compared with the average number of cases between 2015 and 2019 ([Table 1](#)).

The annual incidence of HIV infection was similar from 2015 to 2019, with minimal annual variation by sex and age ([S2 Table](#)). Compared with the pre-pandemic period overall incidence of 25.03 (95% CI, 24.48–25.58) per 100 000 inhabitants, the HIV overall incidence was 26% lower in 2020 (IRR=0.74; 95% CI, 0.71–0.76) and 5% higher in 2021 (IRR=1.05; 95% CI, 1.02–1.08). By 2022, HIV overall incidence was higher than during the pre-pandemic period (IRR=29.19; 95% CI, 28.61–29.78; [Table 2](#)).

Compared with pre-pandemic period overall HIV incidence among men (IRR=39.57; 95% CI, 38.60–40.55), the incidence was 29% lower in 2020 (IRR=0.71; 95% CI, 0.68–0.73), but 4% higher in 2021 (IRR=1.04; 95% CI, 1.01–1.08) and 10% higher in 2022 (IRR=1.10; 95% CI, 1.06–1.14) ([Table 2](#)).

In the age-group stratified analysis, in comparison with the pre-pandemic period, the annual HIV incidence decreased in 2020 for all age groups, mainly for the 18–29 (IRR=42.94; 95% CI, 41.36–44.58) and 30–59 (IRR=22.14; 95% CI, 21.32–22.98). This decrease was 21 and 33% greater in 2020 for those aged 18–29 (IRR=0.79; 95% CI, 0.75–0.83) and 30–59 (IRR=0.67; 95% CI, 0.64–0.70), respectively, compared to the pre-pandemic period. There was also a higher incidence for the years 2021 and 2022. Similar trends were observed for annual HIV incidence in the stratified analysis by age group compared with the overall analysis in men, with decreases of 39% and 46% in 2020 for those aged 18–29 years (IRR=0.61; 95% CI, 0.57–0.64) and 30–59 years (IRR=0.54; 95% CI, 0.51–0.56), respectively ([Table 2](#)).

The annual incidence of HIV infection among regions was similar from 2015 to 2019, with minimal annual variation ([S3 Table](#)). Compared with the pre-pandemic period, annual HIV incidence decreased in 11 out of 25 regions in 2020. In the regions of Amazonas, Callao, Loreto, Madre de Dios and Ucayali, where the annual HIV incidence was the highest in the pre-pandemic period, this incidence was 45% (IRR=0.55; 95% CI, 0.44–0.69), 47% (IRR=0.53; 95% CI, 0.47–0.60), 33% (IRR=0.67; 95% CI, 0.59–0.77), 19% (IRR=0.81; 95% CI, 0.5846–1.13) and 25% (IRR=0.75; 95% CI, 0.64–0.88)

Table 1. HIV cases before and during the COVID-19 pandemic in Peru.

	Pre-pandemic (2015–19)	2020			2021			2022		
	Mean (cases)	n	Differences in the number of cases	(%)	n	Differences in the number of cases	(%)	n	Differences in the number of cases	(%)
Total	8141	6025	–2116	–26.0	8684	543	6.7	9750	1609	19.8
Sex										
Male	6336	4650	–1686	–26.6	6997	661	10.4	7808	1472	23.2
Female	1805	1375	–430	–23.8	1687	–118	–6.5	1942	137	7.6
Age group (years)										
0–11	94	36	–58	–61.6	44	–50	–53.1	68	–26	–27.5
12–17	162	128	–34	–21.2	191	29	17.6	298	136	83.5
18–29	3659	2818	–841	–23.0	4008	349	9.5	4364	705	19.3
30–59	3960	2862	–1098	–27.7	4184	224	5.7	4716	756	19.1
≥60	265	181	–84	–31.7	257	–8	–3.1	304	39	14.6
Age group in men (years)										
0–11	54	20	–34	–63.0	25	–29	–53.7	42	–12	–22.2
12–17	96	67	–29	–29.9	111	15	16.1	178	82	86.2
18–29	2942	2225	–717	–24.4	3323	381	13.0	3632	690	23.5
30–59	3038	2200	–838	–27.6	3338	300	9.9	3715	677	22.3
≥60	206	138	–68	–33.0	200	–6	–2.9	241	35	17.0
Age group in women (years)										
0–11	40	16	–24	–59.8	19	–21	–52.3	26	–14	–34.7
12–17	67	61	–6	–8.7	80	13	19.8	120	53	79.6
18–29	717	593	–124	–17.3	685	–32	–4.5	732	15	2.1
30–59	922	662	–260	–28.2	846	–76	–8.2	1001	79	8.6
≥60	59	43	–16	–27.4	57	–2	–3.7	63	4	6.4
Region										
Amazonas	221	125	–96	–43.5	159	–62	–28.2	384	163	73.4
Ancash	137	87	–50	–36.7	174	37	26.6	196	59	42.6
Apurimac	10	13	3	32.7	25	15	155.1	29	19	195.9
Arequipa	324	153	–171	–52.7	232	–92	–28.3	254	–70	–21.5
Ayacucho	51	48	–3	–6.3	61	10	19.1	56	5	9.4
Cajamarca	62	50	–12	–18.8	99	37	60.7	111	49	80.2
Callao	706	407	–299	–42.4	449	–257	–36.4	451	–255	–36.2
Cusco	120	140	20	16.9	198	78	65.3	220	100	83.6
Huancavelica	17	11	–6	–33.7	12	–5	–27.7	14	–3	–15.7
Huanuco	93	60	–33	–35.8	64	–29	–31.5	99	6	6.0
Ica	237	152	–85	–35.8	241	4	1.9	234	–3	–1.1
Junin	161	139	–22	–13.7	204	43	26.7	190	29	18.0
La Libertad	415	284	–131	–31.6	459	44	10.6	539	124	29.9
Lambayeque	254	211	–43	–17.0	380	126	49.5	354	100	39.3
Lima	3614	2721	–893	–24.7	3904	290	8.0	4282	668	18.5
Loreto	569	388	–181	–31.9	614	45	7.8	699	130	22.8
Madre de Dios	78	72	–6	–7.7	82	4	5.1	85	7	9.0
Moquegua	39	30	–9	–23.9	43	4	9.1	48	9	21.8
Pasco	8	14	6	70.7	15	7	82.9	23	15	180.5
Piura	257	252	–5	–1.8	357	100	39.1	421	164	64.1

(Continued)

Table 1. (Continued)

	Pre-pandemic (2015–19)	2020			2021			2022		
	Mean (cases)	n	Differences in the number of cases	(%)	n	Differences in the number of cases	(%)	n	Differences in the number of cases	(%)
Puno	64	62	–2	–3.1	104	40	62.5	115	51	79.7
San Martin	194	173	–21	–10.6	230	36	18.8	270	76	39.5
Tacna	102	65	–37	–36.0	76	–26	–25.2	100	–2	–1.6
Tumbes	69	77	8	11.0	62	–7	–10.7	126	57	81.6
Ucayali	337	289	–48	–14.2	435	98	29.1	450	113	33.5

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0324784.t001>

lower in 2020, respectively (**Table 3**). In Callao region, the annual incidence of HIV was also 43% lower in 2021 (IRR=0.57; 95% CI, 0.51–0.65) and 49% lower in 2022 (IRR=0.51; 95% CI, 0.45–0.58), compared with the pre-pandemic period. In Amazonas region, the annual incidence of HIV was 35% lower in 2021 (IRR=0.65; 95% CI, 0.52–0.80) increasing to more than 60% in 2022 (IRR=1.60; 95% CI, 1.35–1.90), compared with the pre-pandemic period. Finally, in Madre de Dios region, the annual incidence of HIV was 14% lower in 2021 (IRR=0.86; 95% CI, 0.62–1.19) and 15% lower in 2022 (IRR=0.85; 95% CI, 0.62–1.17), compared with the pre-pandemic period (**Table 3**).

4. Discussion

Our findings shown a reduction in the incidence of HIV infection (26% reduction) in 2020 compared with the pre-pandemic period in Peruvian population. Although the literature is limited, some studies have reported a decrease in HIV incidence during the COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 in different countries [23,24]. During the COVID-19 pandemic, many outpatient services were limited or suspended to prevent the spread of SARS-CoV-2 and to conserve resources for COVID-19 care [3–5], including in Peru [25]. Consequently, laboratories had to focus on COVID-19 testing, resulting in a reduction in the availability of other diagnostic tests, particularly in the area of HIV testing and diagnosis (with reductions of up to 50% in HIV testing in some countries) [7,9,10]. In Peru, the average number of HIV diagnoses decreased by 33% by 2020 [19]. According to a recent study, the proportion of the Peruvian population tested for HIV in the past year decreased by an average of 8.33% (95% CI: –10.73% to –5.93%) [20]. Probably as a result of the decrease in HIV screening population, HIV incidence in the general population has decreased in 2020. In addition, our results showed a temporal association between the implementation of non-pharmaceutical interventions to reduce the spread of SARS-CoV-2 and the incidence of HIV infection in 2020. The COVID-19 pandemic confinement (the national lockdown) officially began on March 16, 2020. The strictest phase of the lockdown — where most businesses were closed, strict curfews were imposed, and only essential activities were allowed — lasted for about 3 and a half months, until the end of June 2020. After that, Peru gradually started a phased reopening, although restrictions and localized quarantines in specific regions continued for many more months. In response to the decline in the HIV infection rate, the Ministry of Health of Peru implemented several strategies during the COVID-19 pandemic to improve HIV testing and treatment services, particularly at the primary health care level. These measures include the decentralization of molecular testing, the introduction of contact tracing systems, and the decentralization of antiretroviral treatment [26]. We also observed that the incidence of HIV infection began to return to pre-pandemic rates in 2021 (with an increase of 5%), which was temporally associated with reducing or eliminating non-pharmaceutical interventions. The decrease in incidence could have several explanations. One possible explanation is that there was a decrease in transmission, that is, as a result of the non-pharmacological interventions, people may have decreased sexual and recreational activities. Another possible explanation is that infections continued to occur, but were less likely to be diagnosed because of the reduction in testing. However, there is not enough information to test these hypotheses. Some studies also showed that HIV screening declines by 2021 during the second or third COVID-19

Table 2. HIV incidence by sex and age before and during COVID-19 pandemic in Peru.

	Pre-pandemic (2015–19)		2020			2021			2022		
	n	IR (95% CI)	n	IR (95% CI)	IRR (95% CI)	n	IR (95% CI)	IRR (95% CI)	n	IR (95% CI)	IRR (95% CI)
Total	8141	25.03 (24.48–25.58)	6025	18.47 (18.00–18.94)	0.74 (0.71–0.76)	8684	26.28 (25.73–26.84)	1.05 (1.02–1.08)	9750	29.19 (28.61–29.78)	1.16 (1.13–1.20)
Sex											
Male	6336	39.57 (38.60–40.55)	4516	27.89 (27.10–28.70)	0.71 (0.68–0.73)	6895	41.20 (40.24–42.19)	1.04 (1.01–1.08)	7218	43.63 (42.63–44.65)	1.10 (1.06–1.14)
Female	1805	10.93 (10.43–11.45)	1346	8.19 (7.76–8.64)	0.75 (0.69–0.80)	1635	10.00 (9.55–10.53)	0.92 (0.86–0.98)	1808	10.73 (10.20–11.20)	0.98 (0.92–1.05)
Age group (years)											
0–11	94	1.38 (1.11–1.69)	35	0.54 (0.37–0.75)	0.39 (0.26–0.58)	43	0.70 (0.50–0.90)	0.48 (0.33–0.70)	80	1.25 (0.90–1.55)	0.90 (0.66–1.23)
12–17	162	4.65 (3.96–5.41)	130	4.19 (3.50–4.98)	0.90 (0.71–1.14)	190	6.10 (5.23–6.98)	1.30 (1.05–1.62)	295	9.41 (8.36–10.54)	2.03 (1.67–2.47)
18–29	3659	54.15 (52.41–55.93)	2758	42.94 (41.36–44.58)	0.79 (0.75–0.83)	3951	62.00 (60.07–63.95)	1.14 (1.09–1.20)	4026	63.67 (61.72–65.66)	1.18 (1.12–1.23)
30–59	3960	33.01 (31.99–34.05)	2765	22.14 (21.32–22.98)	0.67 (0.64–0.70)	4093	32.10 (31.12–33.09)	0.97 (0.93–1.01)	4339	33.48 (32.49–34.49)	1.01 (0.97–1.06)
≥60	265	7.65 (6.75–8.62)	174	4.20 (3.60–4.90)	0.55 (0.45–0.67)	253	5.90 (5.20–6.66)	0.77 (0.64–0.92)	286	6.48 (5.75–7.28)	0.85 (0.71–1.01)
Age group in men (years)*											
0–11	54	1.18 (0.85–1.61)	19	0.58 (0.34–0.90)	0.48 (0.27–0.86)	26	0.80 (0.60–1.16)	0.67 (0.39–1.12)	51	1.57 (1.20–2.10)	1.33 (0.86–2.05)
12–17	96	6.40 (5.27–7.69)	66	4.23 (3.30–5.40)	0.66 (0.48–0.90)	110	7.10 (5.80–8.50)	1.10 (0.84–1.44)	174	11.10 (9.53–12.90)	1.74 (1.36–2.22)
18–29	2942	115.69 (112.06–119.42)	2171	70.43 (67.50–73.0)	0.61 (0.57–0.64)	3288	106.70 (103.06–110.40)	0.92 (0.88–0.97)	3339	109.70 (106.04–113.52)	0.94 (0.91–1.00)
30–59	3038	62.84 (60.82–64.91)	2125	33.78 (32.40–35.60)	0.54 (0.51–0.56)	3272	52.00 (50.30–53.83)	0.83 (0.79–0.86)	3426	52.50 (50.78–54.31)	0.84 (0.79–0.88)
≥60	206	14.83 (13.03–16.81)	135	6.84 (5.74–8.10)	0.46 (0.31–0.57)	199	10.10 (8.74–11.59)	0.68 (0.56–0.82)	228	10.90 (9.57–12.46)	0.74 (0.61–0.89)
Age group in women (years)*											
0–11	40	0.95 (0.65–1.35)	16	0.50 (0.29–0.82)	0.52 (0.26–0.98)	17	0.53 (0.30–0.80)	0.53 (0.28–0.99)	29	0.92 (0.60–1.32)	0.96 (0.56–1.63)
12–17	67	4.76 (3.78–5.90)	64	4.15 (3.20–5.30)	0.87 (0.61–1.22)	80	5.19 (4.12–6.46)	1.09 (0.79–1.50)	121	7.70 (6.39–9.20)	1.62 (1.21–2.17)
18–29	717	24.94 (23.30–26.66)	587	17.57 (16.20–19.10)	0.70 (0.63–0.78)	663	19.85 (18.37–21.42)	0.79 (0.72–0.88)	687	20.94 (19.40–22.57)	0.84 (0.75–0.93)
30–59	922	16.21 (15.22–17.24)	640	10.32 (9.54–11.15)	0.63 (0.57–0.70)	821	13.24 (12.35–14.18)	0.82 (0.74–0.90)	913	14.18 (13.28–15.13)	0.87 (0.80–0.96)
≥60	59	4.02 (3.15–5.05)	39	1.80 (1.28–2.46)	0.45 (0.29–0.67)	54	2.49 (1.87–3.25)	0.62 (0.43–0.89)	58	2.49 (1.89–3.22)	0.62 (0.43–0.87)

Abbreviations: IR, incidence rate; IRR, incidence rate ratio; CI, confidence interval. *Population data were only available for 2019, 2020, 2021, and 2022 to calculate the incidence rate.

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0324784.t002>

Table 3. HIV incidence by region before and during COVID-19 pandemic in Peru.

Region	Pre-pandemic (2015–19)			2020			2021			2022		
	n	IR (95% CI)		n	IR (95% CI)	IRR (95% CI)	n	IR (95% CI)	IRR (95% CI)	n	IR (95% CI)	IRR (95% CI)
Amazonas	221	51.85 (45.15–59.04)		122	28.58 (23.70–34.10)	0.55 (0.44–0.69)	145	33.42 (28.20–39.30)	0.65 (0.52–0.80)	363	82.86 (74.60–91.80)	1.60 (1.35–1.90)
Ancash	137	11.73 (9.82–13.82)		89	7.54 (6.10–9.30)	0.64 (0.49–0.85)	175	14.88 (12.80–17.30)	1.27 (1.01–1.60)	196	16.60 (14.40–19.10)	1.42 (1.13–1.78)
Apurimac	10	2.10 (1.03–3.94)		10	2.32 (1.10–4.30)	1.08 (0.40–2.90)	25	5.89 (2.80–8.70)	2.75 (1.28–6.42)	27	6.38 (4.20–9.30)	2.98 (1.40–6.90)
Arequipa	324	23.96 (21.45–26.75)		150	10.02 (8.50–11.70)	0.42 (0.34–0.51)	233	15.27 (22.40–17.40)	0.64 (0.53–0.76)	237	15.39 (13.50–17.50)	0.64 (0.54–0.76)
Ayacucho	51	7.12 (5.28–9.33)		48	7.18 (5.30–9.50)	1.01 (0.67–1.53)	62	9.42 (7.20–12.10)	1.34 (0.90–1.96)	57	8.65 (6.50–11.20)	0.93 (0.64–1.34)
Cajamarca	62	3.99 (3.08–5.15)		51	3.51 (2.60–4.60)	0.87 (0.59–1.28)	99	6.84 (4.60–8.30)	1.70 (1.23–2.38)	104	7.19 (5.90–8.70)	1.79 (1.29–2.49)
Callao	706	66.15 (61.33–71.18)		396	35.05 (31.70–38.70)	0.53 (0.47–0.60)	434	37.82 (61.40–41.60)	0.57 (0.51–0.65)	394	34.02 (30.70–37.60)	0.51 (0.45–0.58)
Cusco	120	8.90 (7.39–10.66)		139	10.24 (8.60–12.10)	1.15 (0.89–1.48)	196	14.41 (11.50–16.00)	1.61 (1.28–2.05)	217	15.90 (13.90–18.20)	1.78 (1.42–2.25)
Huancavelica	17	3.26 (1.95–5.35)		11	3.01 (1.50–5.40)	0.90 (0.38–2.04)	13	3.68 (2.00–6.30)	1.10 (0.49–2.41)	14	4.02 (2.20–6.70)	1.20 (0.55–2.59)
Huanuco	93	10.50 (8.44–12.81)		57	7.50 (5.70–9.70)	0.72 (0.51–1.01)	58	7.66 (9.80–9.90)	0.73 (0.52–1.03)	96	12.74 (10.30–15.60)	1.22 (0.91–1.64)
Ica	237	28.93 (25.40–32.91)		147	15.07 (12.70–17.70)	0.52 (0.42–0.64)	219	22.27 (24.40–25.40)	0.77 (0.64–0.93)	201	20.09 (17.40–23.10)	0.69 (0.57–0.84)
Junin	161	11.58 (9.86–13.52)		137	10.06 (8.50–11.90)	0.87 (0.69–1.09)	203	14.96 (13.90–17.20)	1.29 (1.04–1.59)	184	13.53 (11.60–15.60)	1.17 (0.94–1.45)
La Libertad	415	21.21 (19.22–23.35)		280	13.88 (12.30–15.60)	0.65 (0.56–0.76)	449	22.10 (23.10–24.20)	1.04 (0.91–1.19)	495	24.10 (22.00–26.30)	1.14 (0.99–1.30)
Lambayeque	254	19.54 (17.20–22.08)		195	14.88 (12.90–17.10)	0.76 (0.63–0.92)	372	28.02 (15.30–31.00)	1.43 (1.22–1.69)	342	25.56 (22.90–28.40)	1.31 (1.11–1.54)
Lima	3614	34.55 (33.44–35.70)		2634	24.78 (23.80–25.70)	0.72 (0.68–0.75)	3835	35.16 (41.10–36.30)	1.02 (0.97–1.06)	3829	34.82 (33.70–35.90)	1.01 (0.96–1.05)
Loreto	569	52.83 (48.54–57.31)		366	35.62 (32.10–39.50)	0.67 (0.59–0.77)	597	57.32 (63.80–62.10)	1.08 (0.97–1.22)	668	63.86 (59.10–68.90)	0.93 (0.83–1.03)
Madre de Dios	78	51.94 (41.05–64.82)		73	42.00 (32.90–52.80)	0.81 (0.58–1.13)	82	44.77 (53.60–55.60)	0.86 (0.62–1.19)	83	44.13 (35.10–54.70)	0.85 (0.62–1.17)
Moquegua	39	20.96 (14.76–28.37)		30	15.57 (10.50–22.00)	0.75 (0.45–1.24)	42	21.58 (18.50–29.20)	1.04 (0.66–1.65)	48	24.64 (18.20–32.70)	1.19 (0.76–1.86)
Pasco	8	2.62 (1.10–5.04)		14	5.15 (2.81–8.64)	2.01 (0.79–5.54)	15	5.49 (3.07–9.06)	2.15 (0.85–5.85)	23	8.54 (5.41–12.81)	3.34 (1.44–8.63)
Piura	257	13.49 (11.91–15.27)		249	12.16 (10.70–13.80)	0.90 (0.75–1.07)	353	16.93 (20.20–18.80)	1.25 (1.06–1.48)	419	19.87 (18.00–21.90)	1.47 (1.26–1.72)
Puno	64	4.35 (3.35–5.55)		61	4.93 (3.80–6.30)	1.13 (0.78–1.63)	97	7.98 (4.50–9.70)	1.57 (1.15–2.15)	113	9.42 (7.80–11.30)	2.16 (1.58–2.99)
San Martin	194	21.88 (18.95–25.24)		158	17.56 (14.90–20.50)	0.80 (0.64–0.99)	220	24.26 (23.20–27.70)	1.84 (1.33–2.56)	251	27.35 (24.10–31.00)	1.24 (1.03–1.51)
Tacna	102	28.36 (23.21–34.56)		64	17.25 (13.30–22.00)	0.61 (0.44–0.84)	76	20.09 (33.80–25.10)	0.71 (0.52–0.96)	99	25.93 (21.10–31.60)	0.91 (0.68–1.21)
Tumbes	69	27.89 (21.57–35.09)		78	31.01 (24.50–38.70)	1.12 (0.80–1.57)	60	23.40 (33.90–30.10)	0.84 (0.59–1.21)	125	48.16 (40.10–57.40)	1.74 (1.28–2.36)

(Continued)

Table 3. (Continued)

	Pre-pandemic (2015–19)		2020			2021			2022		
Region	n	IR (95% CI)	n	IR (95% CI)	IRR (95% CI)	n	IR (95% CI)	IRR (95% CI)	n	IR (95% CI)	IRR (95% CI)
Ucayali	337	65.03 (58.28–72.36)	289	49.06 (43.60–55.00)	0.75 (0.64–0.88)	434	71.61 (62.00–78.70)	1.10 (0.95–1.27)	443	71.96 (65.40–78.90)	1.11 (0.96–1.28)

Abbreviations: IR, incidence rate; IRR, incidence rate ratio; CI, confidence interval.

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0324784.t003>

pandemic wave [27,28]. By 2022, the incidence of HIV infection was higher than that during the pre-pandemic period. According to the literature, the Peruvian health system had partially or fully recovered its capacity to provide health care, as the number of users receiving care per month by December 2022 was similar to the pre-pandemic period [25].

Although HIV incidence decreased in both sexes, the annual incidence of HIV among men was 29% lower in 2020, compared with the pre-pandemic period, mainly for the 18–29 and 30–59 age groups, while the annual incidence in women was 25% lower. This change could be influenced by several factors. First, the pandemic caused a shift in health-care priorities, with resources being reallocated to COVID-19 efforts. This likely led to fewer HIV tests being conducted and, consequently, fewer diagnoses being recorded in men and in women [20], who are the population most affected by HIV infection. Second, lockdowns, social distancing measures, and restrictions on gatherings may have reduced opportunities for sexual activity with new partners, potentially decreasing HIV transmission rates among at-risk groups and men. Third, access to HIV prevention services, such as pre-exposure prophylaxis (PrEP), condom distribution, and education programs, may have been disrupted, affecting risk groups and men. Data from some studies show that PrEP use declined during the pandemic, likely resulting in fewer clinic-based PrEP follow-up visits [29,30]. This may have affected the trends observed, as reported in some countries [30–32]. Fourth, the economic and social disruptions of the pandemic could have altered behavior, including changes in migration patterns or access to healthcare, influencing HIV transmission dynamics among at-risk groups and men [33]. Compared with the pre-pandemic period, in 2021 (4% higher) and 2022 (10% higher) the annual incidence of HIV among men increased. These findings should be interpreted cautiously. It is likely that the decrease in incidence in the year 2020 and the increase in the years 2021 and 2022 reflect temporary changes due to the pandemic, in both men and women.

In 2020, 11 out of 25 Peruvian regions experienced a decline in annual HIV incidence compared to the pre-pandemic period. This decrease was most pronounced in regions with the highest pre-pandemic incidence rates, including Amazonas, Callao, Loreto, Madre de Dios, and Ucayali. Although there was a decreased in incidence of HIV infection, it is highly likely that HIV continued to spread in communities. HIV undiagnosis remains a significant public health problem in Peru; studies indicate that a significant number of people living with HIV are unaware of their status, challenging epidemic control, especially among at-risk groups [34–36]. As a concentrated epidemic, HIV is most prevalent in men who have sex with men, transgender women, and sex workers, where undiagnosed HIV infections may also be more common [35,36]. This poses a challenge to epidemic control. It is also important to note that the most pronounced decline occurred in the Amazonian regions of Peru (Loreto and Ucayali), where there is a considerable presence of indigenous populations. Preliminary evidence suggests that the conception and social representations of health and illness, especially in the case of HIV infection in indigenous populations, strongly influence the behaviors that they ultimately exhibit in response to health interventions [37,38]. Although the COVID-19 pandemic had receded by 2021 and 2022, the burden of HIV infection had increased in Peruvian regions with high prevalence of HIV infection. To address this problem, public health initiatives have been undertaken. The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) and Peruvian health authorities have focused on outreach testing for key populations, index testing services (testing partners of HIV-infected persons), provider-initiated testing, and counseling. These approaches aim to increase diagnosed and reduce undiagnosed cases.

Limitations

Our study has several limitations. First, our study was not able to address whether changes in health-seeking behavior, including a reluctance to visit health facilities (especially in 2020), may have contributed to the lower incidence of HIV infection during the COVID-19 pandemic. Second, only population data for the years 2019, 2020, 2021, and 2022 were available to estimate incidence by age group among males and females. Therefore, the lack of population data from 2015 to 2018 may have biased the estimates of expected incidence by age group by sex. It is also important to note that the HIV incidence rate varied slightly between 2015 and 2019, which was used to estimate the IR for the pre-pandemic period, and did not affect the IRR estimates for the pandemic period (years 2020, 2021, and 2022). Strengths of our study include five years of pre-pandemic surveillance, whereas similar surveillance data are scarce elsewhere in Latin America. As a result, our study provides the first and probably most comprehensive insights into the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on HIV incidence rates and the burden of disease during the three years of the COVID-19 pandemic in Peru.

Implications for Public Health

Our findings on HIV incidence change have several important public health implications for Peru. First, national estimates of changes in HIV incidence provide essential information for sexually transmitted infection (STI) surveillance, health services planning, and public health policy development. Second, these findings could serve as a basis for future STI control interventions and HIV screening initiatives. Third, our findings highlight the need for policies that can help minimize disruptions in HIV diagnosis and care during future health emergencies. In addition, the findings may inform the prioritization of control programs and the planning of STI-related health services in preparation for potential future public health crises.

5. Conclusions

Our study shows that during the COVID-19 pandemic in 2020, there was a decrease in the incidence of HIV infection in the Peruvian population. However, this incidence started to return to pre-pandemic rates as the COVID-19 pandemic receded, which coincided with the reduction or elimination of non-pharmaceutical interventions. By 2022, the incidence of HIV infection was higher than that of pre-pandemic levels, especially in regions of the Peruvian Amazon. The overall impact of reduced incidence could lead to delayed initiation of antiretroviral treatment and increased risk of transmission. Addressing this healthcare gap is essential to ensure that users who did not receive care during the pandemic have access to the healthcare services they need and, in addition, to mitigate long-term adverse health outcomes, especially among at-risk groups.

Supporting information

S1 Table. STROBE Statement—Checklist of items that should be included in reports of cross-sectional studies. (DOC)

S2 Table. HIV incidence in Peru, 2015–2019. (DOC)

S3 Table. HIV incidence in among the regions of Peru, 2015–2019. (DOC)

Author contributions

Conceptualization: Max Carlos Ramírez-Soto.

Data curation: Max Carlos Ramírez-Soto, Hugo Arroyo-Hernández.

Formal analysis: Max Carlos Ramírez-Soto, Hugo Arroyo-Hernández.

Investigation: Max Carlos Ramírez-Soto, Hugo Arroyo-Hernández.

Methodology: Max Carlos Ramírez-Soto, Hugo Arroyo-Hernández.

Software: Max Carlos Ramírez-Soto, Hugo Arroyo-Hernández.

Supervision: Max Carlos Ramírez-Soto.

Validation: Max Carlos Ramírez-Soto, Hugo Arroyo-Hernández.

Visualization: Max Carlos Ramírez-Soto.

Writing – original draft: Max Carlos Ramírez-Soto, Hugo Arroyo-Hernández.

Writing – review & editing: Max Carlos Ramírez-Soto, Hugo Arroyo-Hernández.

References

1. Liu Y, Morgenstern C, Kelly J, Lowe R, CMMID COVID-19 Working Group, Jit M. The impact of non-pharmaceutical interventions on SARS-CoV-2 transmission across 130 countries and territories. *BMC Med.* 2021;19(1):40. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12916-020-01872-8> PMID: [33541353](#)
2. He X, Chen H, Zhu X, Gao W. Non-pharmaceutical interventions in containing COVID-19 pandemic after the roll-out of coronavirus vaccines: a systematic review. *BMC Public Health.* 2024;24(1):1524. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-024-18980-2> PMID: [38844867](#)
3. Zachrisson KS, Yan Z, Schwamm LH. Changes in Virtual and In-Person Health Care Utilization in a Large Health System During the COVID-19 Pandemic. *JAMA Netw Open.* 2021;4(10):e2129973. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2021.29973> PMID: [34705016](#)
4. Kiarie H, Temmerman M, Nyamai M, Liku N, Thuo W, Oramisi V, et al. The COVID-19 pandemic and disruptions to essential health services in Kenya: a retrospective time-series analysis. *Lancet Glob Health.* 2022;10(9):e1257–67. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2214-109X\(22\)00285-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2214-109X(22)00285-6) PMID: [35961349](#)
5. Xiao H, Dai X, Wagenaar BH, Liu F, Augusto O, Guo Y, et al. The impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on health services utilization in China: Time-series analyses for 2016–2020. *Lancet Reg Health West Pac.* 2021;9:100122. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lanwpc.2021.100122> PMID: [34327438](#)
6. Moynihan R, Sanders S, Michaleff ZA, Scott AM, Clark J, To EJ, et al. Impact of COVID-19 pandemic on utilisation of healthcare services: a systematic review. *BMJ Open.* 2021;11(3):e045343. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2020-045343> PMID: [33727273](#)
7. Arsenault C, Gage A, Kim MK, Kapoor NR, Akweongo P, Amponsah F, et al. COVID-19 and resilience of healthcare systems in ten countries. *Nat Med.* 2022;28(6):1314–24. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41591-022-01750-1> PMID: [35288697](#)
8. Haleem A, Javaid M, Vaishya R. Effects of COVID-19 pandemic in daily life. *Curr Med Res Pract.* 2020;10(2):78–9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cmrp.2020.03.011> PMID: [32292804](#)
9. Shoptaw S, Goodman-Meza D, Landovitz RJ. Collective Call to Action for HIV/AIDS Community-Based Collaborative Science in the Era of COVID-19. *AIDS Behav.* 2020;24(7):2013–6. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10461-020-02860-y> PMID: [32300993](#)
10. SeyedAlinaghi S, Mirzapour P, Pashaei Z, Afzalian A, Tantuooyir MM, Salmani R, et al. The impacts of COVID-19 pandemic on service delivery and treatment outcomes in people living with HIV: a systematic review. *AIDS Res Ther.* 2023;20(1):4. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12981-022-00496-7> PMID: [36609313](#)
11. Mude W, Mwenyango H, Preston R, O'Mullan C, Vaughan G, Jones G. HIV Testing Disruptions and Service Adaptations During the COVID-19 Pandemic: A Systematic Literature Review. *AIDS Behav.* 2024;28(1):186–200. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10461-023-04139-4> PMID: [37548796](#)
12. Moitra E, Tao J, Olsen J, Shearer RD, Wood BR, Busch AM, et al. Impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on HIV testing rates across four geographically diverse urban centres in the United States: An observational study. *Lancet Reg Health Am.* 2022;7:100159. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lana.2021.100159> PMID: [34961858](#)
13. Darcis G, Vaira D, Moutschen M. Impact of coronavirus pandemic and containment measures on HIV diagnosis. *Epidemiol Infect.* 2020;148:e185. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0950268820001867> PMID: [32829742](#)
14. Chow EPF, Ong JJ, Denham I, Fairley CK. HIV Testing and Diagnoses During the COVID-19 Pandemic in Melbourne, Australia. *J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr.* 2021;86(4):e114–5. <https://doi.org/10.1097/QAI.0000000000002604> PMID: [33346567](#)
15. Booton RD, Fu G, MacGregor L, Li J, Ong JJ, Tucker JD, et al. The impact of disruptions due to COVID-19 on HIV transmission and control among men who have sex with men in China. *J Int AIDS Soc.* 2021;24(4):e25697. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jia2.25697> PMID: [33821553](#)
16. Kimanga DO, Makory VNB, Hassan AS, Ngari F, Ndisha MM, Muthoka KJ, et al. Impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on routine HIV care and antiretroviral treatment outcomes in Kenya: A nationally representative analysis. *PLoS One.* 2023;18(11):e0291479. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0291479> PMID: [38011132](#)
17. Simões D, Stengaard AR, Combs L, Raben D, EuroTEST COVID-19 impact assessment consortium of partners. Impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on testing services for HIV, viral hepatitis and sexually transmitted infections in the WHO European Region, March to August 2020. *Euro Surveill.* 2020;25(47):2001943. <https://doi.org/10.2807/1560-7917.ES.2020.25.47.2001943> PMID: [33243354](#)
18. Ejima K, Koizumi Y, Yamamoto N, Rosenberg M, Ludema C, Bento AI, et al. HIV Testing by Public Health Centers and Municipalities and New HIV Cases During the COVID-19 Pandemic in Japan. *J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr.* 2021;87(2):e182–7. <https://doi.org/10.1097/QAI.0000000000002660> PMID: [33625066](#)

19. Paredes JL, Owen R, Mejia F. Changes in the notification of HIV diagnoses during the COVID-19 pandemic in Peru. *Sex Transm Infect.* 2022;98(7):544. <https://doi.org/10.1136/sextrans-2022-055465> PMID: [35623886](#)
20. Yrene-Cubas RA, Perez-Castilla J, Reynaga-Cottle DE, Bringas MJ, Soriano-Moreno DR, Fernandez-Guzman D, et al. The impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on HIV testing in Peru: an interrupted time series analysis from 2014 to 2022. *BMC Infect Dis.* 2025;25(1):39. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12879-024-10407-y> PMID: [39773434](#)
21. Vandembroucke JP, von Elm E, Altman DG, Gøtzsche PC, Mulrow CD, Pocock SJ, et al. Strengthening the Reporting of Observational Studies in Epidemiology (STROBE): explanation and elaboration. *PLoS Med.* 2007;4(10):e297. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.0040297> PMID: [17941715](#)
22. Center for Diseases Control C. Epidemiological situation on HIV/AIDS in Peru. Lima: Ministry of Health, Peru. 2022.
23. Nishiura H, Fujiwara S, Imamura A, Shirasaka T. HIV incidence before and during the COVID-19 pandemic in Japan. *Math Biosci Eng.* 2024;21(4):4874–85. <https://doi.org/10.3934/mbe.2024215> PMID: [38872518](#)
24. Mitchell KM, Dimitrov D, Silhol R, Geidelberg L, Moore M, Liu A, et al. The potential effect of COVID-19-related disruptions on HIV incidence and HIV-related mortality among men who have sex with men in the USA: a modelling study. *Lancet HIV.* 2021;8(4):e206–15. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2352-3018\(21\)00022-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2352-3018(21)00022-9) PMID: [33617783](#)
25. Villarreal-Zegarra D, Bellido-Boza L, Erazo A, Pariona-Cárdenas M, Valdivia-Miranda P. Impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the services provided by the Peruvian health system: an analysis of people with chronic diseases. *Sci Rep.* 2024;14(1):3664. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-024-54275-7> PMID: [38351170](#)
26. Dirección de Prevención y Control de VIH-SIDA. Enfermedades de Transmisión Sexual y Hepatitis (DPVIH) - Contenido institucional - Ministerio de Salud - Plataforma del Estado Peruano. <https://www.gob.pe/23137-ministerio-de-salud-direccion-de-prevencion-y-control-de-vih-sida-enfermedades-de-transmision-sexual-y-hepatitis-dpvih>
27. Romero-Hernández B, Martínez-García L, Rodríguez-Domínguez M, Martínez-Sanz J, Vélez-Díaz-Pallarés M, Pérez Mies B, et al. The Negative Impact of COVID-19 in HCV, HIV, and HPV Surveillance Programs During the Different Pandemic Waves. *Front Public Health.* 2022;10:880435. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpubh.2022.880435> PMID: [35937266](#)
28. McFall AM, Menezes NP, Srikrishnan AK, Solomon SS, Anand S, Baishya JJ, et al. Impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on HIV prevention and care services among key populations across 15 cities in India: a longitudinal assessment of clinic-based data. *J Int AIDS Soc.* 2022;25(7):e25960. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jia2.25960> PMID: [35818314](#)
29. Hammoud MA, Grulich A, Holt M, Maher L, Murphy D, Jin F, et al. Substantial Decline in Use of HIV Preexposure Prophylaxis Following Introduction of COVID-19 Physical Distancing Restrictions in Australia: Results From a Prospective Observational Study of Gay and Bisexual Men. *J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr.* 2021;86(1):22–30. <https://doi.org/10.1097/QAI.0000000000002514> PMID: [33027151](#)
30. Chow EPF, Hocking JS, Ong JJ, Schmidt T, Buchanan A, Rodriguez E, et al. Changing the Use of HIV Pre-exposure Prophylaxis Among Men Who Have Sex With Men During the COVID-19 Pandemic in Melbourne, Australia. *Open Forum Infect Dis.* 2020;7(7):ofaa275. <https://doi.org/10.1093/ofid/ofaa275> PMID: [32704518](#)
31. Goedel WC, Rogers BG, Li Y, Nunn AS, Patel RR, Marshall BDL, et al. Pre-exposure Prophylaxis Discontinuation During the COVID-19 Pandemic Among Men Who Have Sex With Men in a Multisite Clinical Cohort in the United States. *J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr.* 2022;91(2):151–6. <https://doi.org/10.1097/QAI.0000000000003042> PMID: [36094480](#)
32. Rogers BG, Tao J, Darveau SC, Maynard M, Almonte A, Napoleon S, et al. The Impact of COVID-19 on Sexual Behavior and Psychosocial Functioning in a Clinical Sample of Men who have Sex with Men Using HIV Pre-exposure Prophylaxis. *AIDS Behav.* 2022;26(1):69–75. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10461-021-03334-5> PMID: [34114165](#)
33. Winwood JJ, Fitzgerald L, Gardiner B, Hannan K, Howard C, Mutch A. Exploring the Social Impacts of the COVID-19 Pandemic on People Living with HIV (PLHIV): A Scoping Review. *AIDS Behav.* 2021;25(12):4125–40. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10461-021-03300-1> PMID: [34019203](#)
34. Vagenas P, Ludford KT, Gonzales P, Peinado J, Cabezas C, Gonzales F, et al. Being unaware of being HIV-infected is associated with alcohol use disorders and high-risk sexual behaviors among men who have sex with men in Peru. *AIDS Behav.* 2014;18(1):120–7. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10461-013-0504-2> PMID: [23670711](#)
35. Billings JD, Joseph Davey DL, Konda KA, Bristow CC, Chow J, Klausner JD, et al. Factors associated with previously undiagnosed human immunodeficiency virus infection in a population of men who have sex with men and male-to-female transgender women in Lima, Peru. *Medicine (Baltimore).* 2016;95(42):e5147. <https://doi.org/10.1097/MD.0000000000005147> PMID: [27759645](#)
36. Quiroz-Ruiz HR, Pairazamán-Quiroz OD, Quiroz-Villanueva DE, Cornejo-Pacherres HD, Hernández-Palomino FN, Cruzado-Montero AA, et al. Estimate of undiagnosed HIV cases in the Cajamarca region of Peru: probabilistic linkage between databases. *Cien Saude Colet.* 2023;28(6):1843–52. <https://doi.org/10.1590/1413-81232023286.11922022> PMID: [37255160](#)
37. Huamán B, Gushiken A, Benites C, Quiroz F, García-Fernández L. Prevention of Maternal-Child Transmission of HIV in Pregnant Women and Mothers of the Awajun and Wampis Communities in the Amazon Region of Peru. *Rev Peru Med Exp Salud Publica.* 2017;34(4):627–32. <https://doi.org/10.17843/rpmesp.2017.344.2725> PMID: [29364404](#)
38. Valenzuela-Oré F, Angulo-Bazán Y, Lazóriga-Sandoval LD, Cruz-Vilcarromero NL, Cubas-Sagardia CR. Factors influencing adherence to anti-retroviral therapy in amazonian indigenous people living with HIV/AIDS. *BMC Public Health.* 2023;23(1):497. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-023-15362-y> PMID: [36922774](#)